RAJIV GANDHI INSTITUTE OF PETROLEUM TECHNOLOGY, JAIS, AMETHI

Department of Computer Science and Engineering



B.Tech. 3rd Year Software Engineering (CS331) By Dr. Kalka Dubey

UNIT- 4 (System Design)

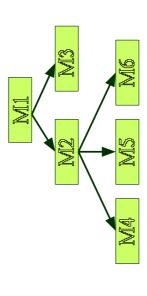
- □ Objective
- □ Principles
- ☐ Module level concepts
- ☐ Coupling and Cohesion
- ☐ Methodology- structured and object oriented
- ☐ Design specification and verification

Introduction

- Design phase transforms SRS document:
- To a form easily implementable in some programming language.

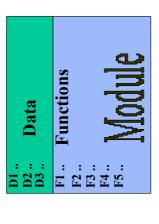


Module Structure



Module Structure • A module consists of:

- Several functions
- Associated data structures.



Items Designed During Design Phase

- Module structure
- Control relationship among the modules
 - call relationship or invocation relationship
- Interface among different modules
- Data items exchanged among different modules,
- Data structures of individual modules
- Algorithms for individual modules

Software designs

- Design activities are usually classified into two stages:
- Preliminary (High-level) design.
- Detailed design.

High-Level Design

- Identify: Modules
- Control relationships among modules
- Interfaces among modules.

High-Level Design

- The outcome of high-level design:
- •Program structure (or software architecture).

High-Level Design

- Several notations are available to represent high-level design:
- •Usually, a tree-like diagram called structure chart is used.
- •Other notations:
- •Jackson diagram or Warnier-Orr diagram can also be used.

Detailed Design

- For each module, design:
- •Data structure
- Algorithms
- Outcome of detailed design:
- Module specification.

A Classification of Design Methodologies

- Procedural or Structure oriented (Function-oriented)
- Object-oriented
- More recent:
- Aspect-oriented
- Component-based (Client-Server)

Good and Bad Designs

- There is **no unique** way to design a system.
- Even using the same design methodology:
- •Different designers can arrive at very different design solutions.
- Need to distinguish between good and bad designs.

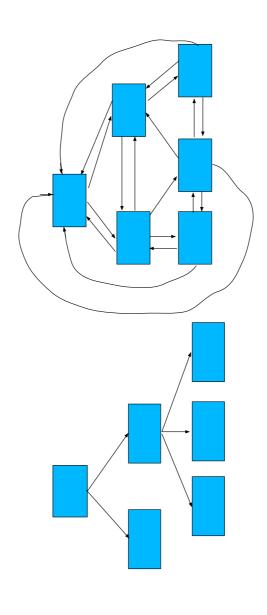
Good Design

- It should implement all functionalities of the system correctly?
- It should be easily understandable.
- It should be efficient.
- Should be easily amenable to change,
- •i.e. easily maintainable.

Good Design

- Understandability of a design is a major one:
- •It determines the goodness of design:
- •A design that is easy to understand:
- •Also easy to maintain and change.

Layered Design



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Layered Design

- Arrangement of modules in a hierarchy means:
- •Low fan-out (The fan-out of a module is the number of its immediately subordinate modules)
- Control abstraction

Modularity

- Modularity is a fundamental attributes of any good design.
- Decomposition of a problem cleanly into modules.
- Modules are almost independent of each other.
- Divide and conquer principle.

Modularity

• Modules should have:

•High Cohesion

•Low Coupling.

Advantages of Functional Independence

- 1. Better Understandability and good design.
- 2. The complexity of design is reduced.
- 3. Different modules can easily be understood in isolation.

Advantages of Functional Independence

- 4. Functional independence reduces error propagation.
- Degree of interaction between modules is low.
- An error existing in one module does not directly affect other modules.
- **5. Reuse of** modules is possible.

Cohesion and Coupling

- Cohesion is a measure of:
- •functional strength of a module.
- •A cohesive module performs a single task or function.
- Coupling between two modules:
- •A measure of the degree of interdependence or interaction between the two modules.

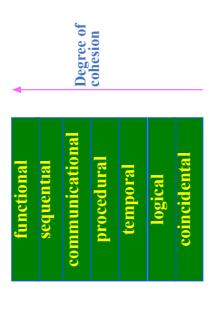
Cohesion and Coupling

- A module having high cohesion and low coupling:
- Functionally independent of other modules:
- A functionally independent module has minimal interaction with other modules.

Cohesion

- Unfortunately, there are no ways:
- •To quantitatively measure the degree of cohesion and coupling.
- •Classification of different kinds of cohesion and coupling:
- •Can give us some idea regarding the degree of cohesiveness of a module.

Classification of Cohesiveness



Coincidental Cohesion

- The module performs a set of tasks:
- Which relate to each other very loosely, if at all.
- •The module contains a random collection of functions.
- Functions have been put in the module out of pure coincidence without any thought or design.

Logical Cohesion

- All elements of the module perform similar operations:
- e.g. error handling, data input, data output, etc.
- An example of logical cohesion:
- A set of print functions to generate an output report arranged into a single

Temporal Cohesion

- The module contains tasks that are related by the fact:
- All the tasks must be executed in the same time span.
- Example:
- The set of functions responsible for
- initialization
- start-up
- shut-down
- •etc.

Procedural Cohesion

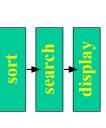
- The set of functions of the module:
- All part of a procedure (algorithm)
- •Certain sequences of steps have to be carried out in a certain order to achieve an objective.
- •e.g. the algorithm for decoding a message.

Communicational Cohesion

- All functions of the module:
- •Reference or update the same data structure,
- Example:
- •The set of functions is defined on an array or a stack.

Sequential Cohesion

- Elements of a module form different parts of a sednence.
- Output from one element of the sequence is input to the next.
- Example:



Functional Cohesion

- Different elements of a module cooperate
- •To achieve a single function,
- •e.g. managing an employee's payroll.
- When a module displays functional cohesion,
- •Can describe the function using a single sentence.

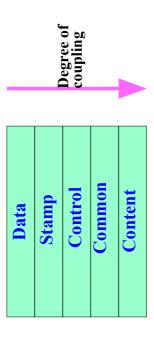
Coupling

- Coupling indicates:
- •How closely two modules interact or how interdependent they are.
- •The degree of coupling between two modules depends on their interface complexity.

Coupling

- There are no ways to precisely way to determine the coupling between two modules:
- Classification of different coupling types will help us **approximate** and estimate the degree of coupling between two modules.
- Five types of coupling can exist between any two modules.

Classes of coupling



Data coupling

- Two modules are data coupled
- If they communicate via a parameter:
- an elementary data item.
- •e.g an integer, a float, a character, etc.
- The data item should be problem-related:
- •Not used for control purposes.

Stamp Coupling

- Two modules are stamp coupled
- If they communicate via a composite data item
- such as a record in PASCAL
- A structure in C.

Control Coupling

- Data from one module is used to direct:
- Order of instruction execution in another.
- Example of control coupling:
- A flag set in one module and tested in another module.

Common Coupling

- Two modules are common coupled
- •If they share some global data.

Content Coupling

- Content coupling exists between two modules:
- •If they share code
- e.g, branching from one module into another module.
- The degree of coupling increases
- from data coupling to content coupling.

Design Approaches

• Two fundamentally different software design approaches

• Function-oriented design

•Object-oriented design

Function-Oriented Design

- A system is looked upon as something that performs a set of functions.
- Starting at this high-level view of the system.
- Each function is successively refined into more detailed functions.
- Functions are mapped to a module structure.

Example

- The function creates a new library member.
- •Creates the record for a new member
- Assigns a unique membership number
- •Prints a bill for the membership

Example

- the • Create-library-member function consists of following sub-functions:
- •Create-member-record
- •Assign-membership-number
- •Print-bill

Function-Oriented Design

• Each sub-function:

•Split into more detailed sub-functions and so on.

Function-Oriented Design

- Several function-oriented design approaches have been developed in last five decade.
- Wirth's step-wise refinement (1971)
- Jackson's structured design (Jackson, 1975)
- Warnier-Orr methodology (1976)
- Structured design (1979)
- Hatley and Pirbhai's Methodology (1987)

Object-Oriented Design

- System is viewed as a collection of objects (i.e. entities).
- System state is decentralized among the objects:
- Each object manages its own state information.

Object-Oriented Design

- Objects have their own internal data:
- Defines their state.
- Similar objects constitute a class.
- Each object is a member of some class.
- Classes may inherit features
- From a super class.
- Conceptually, objects communicate by message passing.

Object-Oriented Design

- Library Automation Software:
- Each library member is a separate object.
- •With its own data and functions.
- Functions defined for one object:
- •Cannot directly refer to or change data of other objects.

• Unlike function-oriented design,

•In FOD the basic abstraction is functions such as "sort", "display", "track", etc., • Whereas in OOD real-world entities such as "employee", "picture", "machine", "radar system", etc.

- In FOD:
- Software is developed by designing functions such as:
- •update-employee-record,
- get-employee-address, etc.
- Whereas in OOD, Software is developed by designing objects such
- •employees,
- departments, etc.

- In FOD:
- State information is shared in a centralized data.
- Whereas in OOD the state information is distributed among the objects of the system.

- real-world entities and directly access only part of the system • The functions are usually associated with specific state information.
- One object may discover the state information of another object by message passing.

Example:

- In an employee pay-roll system, the following can be global data:
- •employee names,
- code numbers,
- basic salaries, etc.
- Whereas, in object oriented design:
- Data is distributed among different employee objects of the system.

Fire-Alarm System

- We need to develop a computerized fire alarm system for a large multi-storied building:
- •There are 80 floors and 1000 rooms in the building.
- Different rooms of the building:
- Fitted with smoke detectors and fire alarms.
- The fire alarm system would monitor:
- Status of the smoke detectors.

Fire-Alarm System

- Whenever a fire condition is reported by any smoke detector:
- The fire alarm system should:
- •Determine the location from which the fire condition was reported
- •Sound the alarms in the neighboring locations.
- Flash an alarm message on the computer console:
- Fire fighting personnel man the console round the clock.

Fire-Alarm System

- After a fire condition has been successfully handled,
- The fire alarm system should let fire fighting personnel reset the alarms.

Function-Oriented Approach:

• Global data

detector_status
detector_locs
alarm-status
alarm_locs
neighbor-alarms

The functions which operate on the system state:

interrogate_detectors();
get_detector_location();
determine_neighbor();
ring_alarm();
reset_alarm();
report_fire_location();

Object-Oriented Approach:

• class detector

operations: create, sense-status, get-location, find-neighbors attributes: status, location, neighbors

• class alarm

attributes: location, status

operations: create, ring-alarm, get_location, reset-alarm

• In the object oriented program,
• An appropriate number of **instances of the class detector** and **alarm** should be created.

SA/SD (Structured Analysis/Structured Design)

- SA/SD technique draws heavily from the following methodologies:
- Constantine and Yourdon's methodology
- Hatley and Pirbhai's methodology
- Gane and Sarson's methodology
- DeMarco and Yourdon's methodology
- SA/SD technique can be used to perform
 - high-level design.

Overview of SA/SD Methodology

- SA/SD methodology consists of two distinct activities:
- Structured Analysis (SA)
- Structured Design (SD)
- During structured analysis:
- functional decomposition takes place.
- During structured design:
- module structure is formalized.

Structured Analysis

- Transforms a textual problem description into a graphic model.
- Done using Data Flow Diagrams (DFDs).
- DFDs graphically represent the results of structured analysis.

Data Flow Diagrams

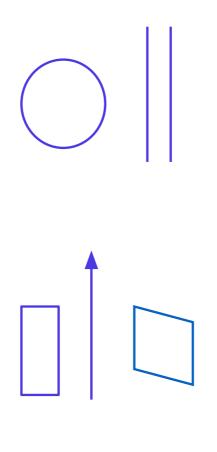
- DFD is an elegant modelling technique:
- Useful not only to represent the results of structured analysis.
- Applicable to other areas also:
- •e.g. for showing the flow of documents or items in an organization,
- DFD technique is very popular:
- It is powerful and yet simple to understand and use.

Data Flow Diagrams

- A DFD model:
 Uses limited types of symbols.
- Simple set of rules
- Easy to understand:
- It is a hierarchical model.

Data Flow Diagrams

• Primitive Symbols Used for Constructing DFDs:



External Entity Symbol

- Represented by a rectangle
- External entities are real physical entities:
- input data to the system or

Librarian

- consume data produced by the system.
- Sometimes external entities are called terminator, source, or sink.

Function Symbol

- A function such as "search-book" is represented using a **circle**:
- This symbol is called a process or bubble or transform.
- Bubbles are annotated with corresponding function names.
- Functions represent some activity:



Data Flow Symbol

- A directed arc or line.
- Represents data flow in the direction of the arrow.
- Data flow symbols are annotated with names of data they carry.



Data Store Symbol

- Represents a logical file:A logical file can be:
- a data structure
- a physical file on disk.
- Each data store is connected to a process:
 - •By means of a data flow symbol.

book-details

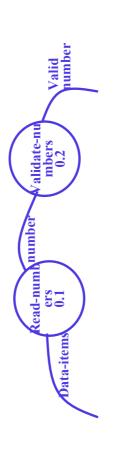
Output Symbol

Output produced by the system



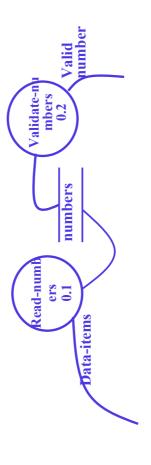
Synchronous Operation

- If two **bubbles are directly connected** by a data flow arrow:
 - They are synchronous

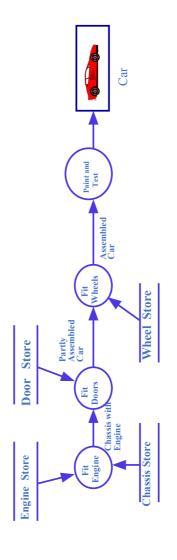


Asynchronous Operation

- If two bubbles are connected via a data store:
- •They are asynchronous.



Data Flow Model of a Car Assembly Unit



Levels in Data Flow Diagrams (DFD)

- Software engineering DFD can be drawn to represent the system of different levels of abstraction.
- · Higher-level DFDs are partitioned into low-level DFDs for more information and functional elements.
- Levels in DFD are numbered 0, 1, 2, and 3.

Level 0 DFD

- This is the highest-level DFD, which provides an overview of the entire system.
- It shows the major processes, data flows, and data stores in the system, without providing any details about the internal workings of these processes.
- Level O DFD is represented by the Context Diagram.

Context Diagram

- A context diagram shows:
- Data input to the system.
- Output data generated by the system.
- External entities.

Railway Reservation: Context Diagram

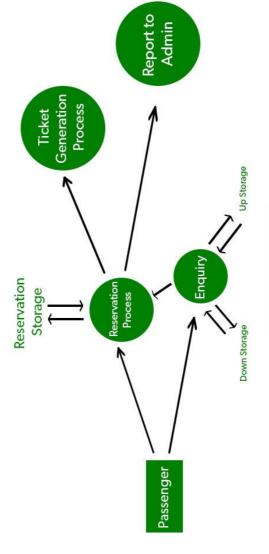


O-LEVEL DFD

Level 1 DFD

- This level provides a **more detailed view of the system** by breaking down the major processes identified in the **level 0 DFD** into sub-processes.
- Each sub-process is depicted as a **separate process** on the level 1 DFD.
- The data flows and data stores associated with each sub-process are also

Railway Reservation: Level 1



1-LEVEL DFD

Level 2 DFD

- This level provides an even more detailed view of the system by breaking down the sub-processes identified in the level 1 DFD into further sub-processes.
- Each sub-process is depicted as a separate process on the level 2 DFD.
- The data flows and data stores associated with each sub-process are also

Decomposition

- The decomposition of a bubble is also called factoring or exploding.
- Each bubble is decomposed to
- Between 3 to 7 bubbles.
- Too few bubbles make decomposition superfluous:
- If a bubble is decomposed into just one or two bubbles:
- Then this decomposition is redundant.
- Too many bubbles make the DFD model hard to understand
- More than 7 bubbles at any level of a DFD.

Level 3 DFD

- This is the **most detailed level of DFDs**, which provides a detailed view of the processes, data flows, and data stores in the system.
- This level is typically used for complex systems, where a high level of detail is required to understand the system.
- Each process on the level 3 DFD is depicted with a **detailed description** of its input, processing, and output.
- The data flows and data stores associated with each process are also shown

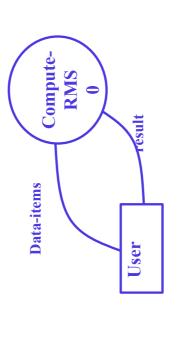
Example: RMS Calculating Software

- Consider a software called RMS calculating software:
- Reads three integers in the range of -1000 to +1000
- Finds out the Root Mean Square (RMS) of the three input numbers
- Displays the result.

Example: RMS Calculating Software

- The context diagram is simple to develop:
- The system accepts 3 integers from the user.
- Returns the result to him.

Example: RMS Calculating Software (Level 0 DFD)

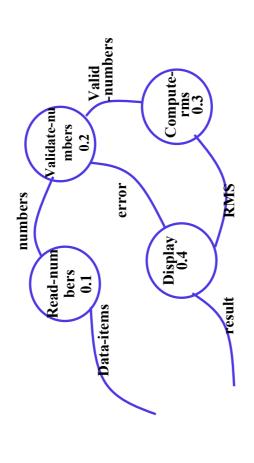


Context Diagram

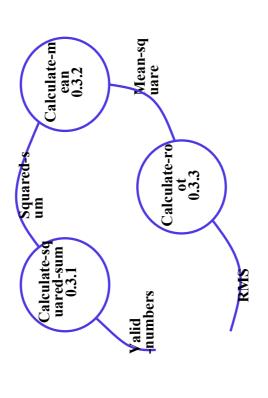
Example: RMS Calculating Software

- From a cursory analysis of the problem description:
- We can see that the system needs to perform several things.
- Accept input numbers from the user:
- Validate the numbers,
- Calculate the root mean square of the input numbers
- Display the result.

Example: RMS Calculating Software (Level 1 DFD)

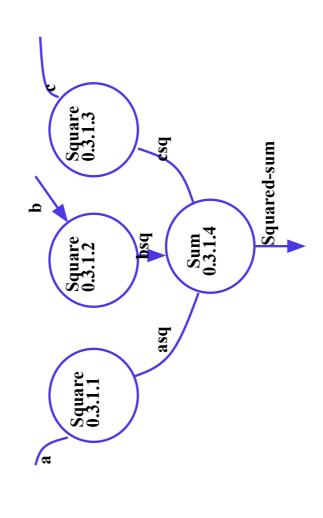


Example: RMS Calculating Software (Level 2 DFD)



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Example: RMS Calculating Software (Level 3 DFD)



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Summary of Structured Analysis

- Based on principles of:
- Top-down decomposition approach.
- Divide and conquer principle:
- Each function is considered individually (i.e. isolated from other functions).
 - Decompose functions totally disregarding what happens in other functions.
- Graphical representation of results using
- Data flow diagrams (or bubble charts).

Structured Design

- All the functions represented in the DFD:
- Mapped to a module structure.
- The module structure is also called the software architecture:

Data Dictionary

- A DFD is always accompanied by a data dictionary.
- A data dictionary lists all data items appearing in a DFD:
- Definition of all composite data items in terms of their component data
- All data names along with the purpose of the data items.
- For example, a data dictionary entry may be: grossPay = regularPay + overtimePay

Importance of Data Dictionary

- Provides all engineers in a project with standard terminology for all data:
 - A consistent vocabulary for data is very important.
- Different engineers tend to use different terms to refer to the same data.
- Causes unnecessary confusion.
- Data dictionary provides the definition of different data:
 - In terms of their component elements.
- For large systems,
- The data dictionary grows rapidly in size and complexity.
- Typical projects can have thousands of data dictionary entries.
- It is extremely difficult to maintain such a dictionary manually.

End of Unit 4

